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THE
GRACE H. DODGE
LECTURES



October, 1937
FOUNDING TEACHERS COLLEGE

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THE GRACE H. DODGE LECTURES

FOUNDING
TEACHERS COLLEGE

*Reminiscences of
the Dean Emeritus*



James Earl Russell

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*Dedicated
to the
Trustees, Staff, and Students
of Teachers College
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ORIGINS OF TEACHERS COLLEGE

CHAPTER ONE

ORIGINS OF TEACHERS COLLEGE



THE history of Teachers College is a drama showing how ideas arise, expand, and come to fruition in a democratic society. The story of its beginnings as told by the three persons best qualified to speak from personal experience—Grace H. Dodge, Nicholas Murray Butler, and Walter L. Hervey—is a thrilling account of an epochal chapter in the history of American education.

It is not my purpose to retell the story. Suffice it for the present to point out the interaction of ideals which shaped the course of the movement in its early stages and which still presented problems for solution when I first appeared on the scene forty years ago today.

Doctor Hervey introduced an illuminating article on the early history, published in the first number of the *Teachers College Record* (1900), thus:

“Teachers College is the product of an interesting evolution in which it is possible to distinguish two main streams of influence. The first of these was purely philanthropic in its nature; the second, purely educational. One emanated from the hearts of a group of generous and devoted men and women, desirous of promoting practical measures of social helpfulness; the other had its rise in the clear and farseeing vision of President Barnard, of Columbia College, who may justly be called the Father of the movement in this community for the higher study of education. Until the two were joined, the first was perhaps more deed than idea; the second, idea rather than deed. How each of these streams ran its independent course, until it became joined with the other, naturally forms the first chapter in the story of how there came to be such an institution as Teachers College.”

The first of these streams had its source in the Kitchen Garden Association, incorporated in 1880, with the stated objects of the promotion of the domestic industrial arts among the laboring classes, the diffusion of the principles on which the system had been founded, and provision for its perpetuation.

During its first four years the movement had phenomenal growth. Thousands of young girls were taught the ordinary household duties the better to

qualify them for domestic service. Other cities became interested and even in other lands the idea took root.

The next step was to care for boys as well as girls. Pressure was put on the public schools to include some phases of industrial education in their regular offering. This led to a reorganization of the Association and the inclusion in its governing body of some of the most influential men in the city, notably President Barnard and Seth Low, later to become Barnard's successor. Thus the Industrial Education Association in 1884 replaced the Kitchen Garden Association as head and front of the movement.

The two years following showed rapid advance. More children clamored for admission to its classes. A great Children's Industrial Exhibition, participated in by some sixty schools and institutions, attracted visitors from many other cities and led eventually to the introduction of household arts and manual training into the schools of New York City.

The Association took over and equipped the building formerly occupied by the Union Theological Seminary at No. 9 University Place. The opening was honored by an address by President Gilman of Johns Hopkins University. In this connection, Doctor Hervey states, "Two main lines of work were distinguishable in the Association proper: on the one hand, the

events leading to the purchase of the land and the financing of the first building reads like a fairy tale. The \$100,000 given by George W. Vanderbilt, just in the nick of time to secure the site when all other efforts had failed, and a cablegram from a stranger in New Zealand pledging \$20,000 to complete the necessary building fund, are examples of hairbreadth escapes from impending death. Miss Dodge said they were answers to prayers. Dire forebodings of what might happen to an institution that had the hardihood to settle next door to the remains of an insane asylum were dispelled by the announcement soon after the die was cast that Columbia University had purchased the Bloomingdale property for its future home. Thus without foresight of its possibilities the stage was set for another act in the drama, thereafter to be played on 120th Street.

Doctor Butler's first report presented to the Trustees of the infant college in May, 1888, opened with this statement: "It is interesting to note that an organization founded as a philanthropic enterprise has become a great educational force and has changed its platform of humanitarianism for one of purely educational reform and advancement." Subsequent events apparently tempered this optimistic outlook. True, both School and College slowly increased in enrollment, and the pres-

tige of the young President attracted the attention of schoolmen all over the country.

Meantime, I suspect, trouble was brewing at home. Until 1891 some four hundred to five hundred children from public schools were given free instruction in afternoon classes, and, until the College removed to 120th Street in 1893, classes in missions, clubs, and industrial schools enrolled an average of one thousand children a year.

Current expenses of some \$7,400 in 1886 jumped to \$62,000 in 1891, of which about \$25,000 had to be raised from gifts. The major part of earnings were, of course, from tuition fees in the Horace Mann School. The College then and for many years afterwards was largely dependent upon the generosity of donors. And, let it be remembered, the donors were the philanthropists whose objectives were recorded in 1880 as "The promotion of the Domestic Industrial Arts among the laboring classes," and elaborated in 1884 to include the "special training of both sexes in any of those industries which affect house and home directly or indirectly and which will enable those receiving it to become self-supporting."

It is easy to imagine that the ideals of the philanthropists did not readily yield to the aims of educational reform, nor was their enthusiasm enlivened by

the necessity of a house-to-house canvass for funds to maintain an enterprise that could claim no popular backing. The two streams were joined when the institution took the name, Teachers College, but they were not yet united. How to secure administrative unity was the first big problem presented to me in 1897.

Quite as disturbing as this dichotomy of aims was the philosophy controlling the means and methods of attaining those aims. The founders of the Kitchen Garden Association and those who guided its subsequent development were adherents of the Protestant Christian faith, although the undertaking itself was strictly non-sectarian. Perhaps it was their ecclesiastical training, however, that led them at each step to formulate a creed. In 1887, when about to embark on an educational career, they formally adopted ten Articles of Faith. I quote from this creed the following statements: Art.I—"A complete development of all the faculties can be reached only through a system of education which combines the training found in the usual courses of study with the elements of Manual Training." Art.IV—"It is the development of the faculties which it holds to be the essential aim of the system." Art.VIII—"This system tends to the development of certain moral qualities, as well as to the development of the intellectual faculties."

System, faculties, moral qualities, manual training—significant words that presage the inevitable clash between old and new ideas. Method and discipline become problems to be reckoned with. Method, a way of doing things, especially when supported by public opinion and practical experience, is even more tenacious of its grip than belief in ideals. Ideas change but in implementing them one has only old methods to use. Discipline as an objective engenders habits characteristic of the trained animal, the obedient soldier, and the docile subject of an autocratic government. It tends to efficiency in action and certainty of results, but it makes no discrimination in ends worthy of attainment; it confounds a legitimate means of instruction with desirable aims of education in a democratic society.

With no reservations whatever concerning the validity of their faith the trustees of the institution proceeded to put new wine into the old bottle at the risk of an inevitable catastrophe. Finally, after a decade of trial and error, there was passed on to me the age-old doctrine of formal discipline in the guise of a corollary to the problem of organization of the College—a doctrine devised by those ignorant of the humanism of the Renaissance or opposed to its diffusion among all classes, a doctrine that has made the

work of illiterate teachers a students' nightmare these past one hundred fifty years.

Now, to compare great things with small, let us inspect the person to whom was handed the problems which had generated the growing pains of the adolescent institution.

I was brought up in the strictest sect of the Pharisees, a Scotch Presbyterian community in upstate New York. I went to the village school for eight years until the masters of my fate, the State Board of Regents, were satisfied of my proficiency. Indeed, I could spell all the words in the spelling book, even to abracadabra and hypersusceptibility. I could do all the sums in the arithmetic, including longitude and time, allegation, partial payments, and cube root. I could bound all the states, name their capitals, and say where the main rivers rose and where they emptied. Canada was a big pink splash on the map and the rest of the world didn't much matter anyway. My reading books had some choice bits, like "The Death of Little Nell," but it was long afterwards that I discovered they were excerpts from standard literature. Formal grammar was the culmination of language study and the apex of grammar was parsing Gray's "Elegy" and the first three pages of *Paradise Lost*—quite enough of Milton, I am sorry to say, to last me a lifetime.

Then, after a summer in a country store where I was expected to acquire some business sense, I entered the old academy (there were no public high schools in our neck of the woods) to be prepared for college. Here I was taught the usual round of Greek, Latin, and mathematics with special emphasis on answers to questions that had been asked on former examinations. Barren as was the content of instruction, the process was an excellent illustration of the fact that education is not wholly a matter of schooling. Bitter memories of long hours spent in drudgery are now overshadowed by feelings of gratitude for the inspiration that came from contact with the teachers themselves. Just to sit at the feet of such a man as was the principal of that school and absorb his ideals of life was itself a liberal education.

A competitive examination gave me a scholarship in Cornell University, which I entered in 1883. For the next three years I had still further doses of Greek, Latin, and mathematics together with some French and a few short courses in science, history, and rhetoric. The science courses, physics, botany, and entomology, were for budding scientists but their roots went too deep for me; history was as dead as the subject of which it treated—and that at a time when Andrew D. White was writing the most interesting book of the

period. My first real uplift came from listening to Hiram Corson read Shakespeare, Tennyson, and Browning. That opened up a new world to me—not only a world of books but a world in which men of letters joined hands with historians, mathematicians, scientists, and philosophers in interpreting our cultural inheritance.

Strange as it may seem today, in all my schooling up to the junior year in college no book was ever suggested as desirable correlative reading, much less required. Textbooks were deemed sufficient for all needs. My schooling was all a dull, senseless grind enlivened only by what Kipling calls the art of guessing what kind of answers best please certain kinds of examiners. No great skill was required to meet such tests or to get marks indicative of high standing.

A new era opened to me in my senior year with the coming of two young professors, Jacob Gould Schurman and Benjamin Ide Wheeler. In reply to an inquiry how I might best spend the summer preparatory to his courses, Schurman wrote me to study Locke's *Essay Concerning Human Understanding*. Three months is hardly time enough for a neophyte to absorb all that that Essay contains but it was my first effort to analyze a masterpiece. At the end of the summer vacation I did know its contents from A to Z. With this as a starter I

was permitted to take all the regular courses that Schurman gave and was admitted to his Seminar.

The rest of my time was given to Wheeler's Seminar in Greek. An investigation of the use of the dative case in the *Iliad* and the *Odyssey* was specifically the main task assigned to me, but the seminar sessions devoted to the rapid reading of Homer illuminated by excursions into the life and thought of Greek civilization were eye-openers to a student blind to the world in which he had lived during his school days.

No one starving for nourishing food ever faced a full meal with greater satisfaction than I did in my senior year. And what a year it was—not merely for its extraordinary educational value but also because it admitted me to the intimate acquaintance and the family life of two great men.

Then followed three years of teaching Greek to boys who were chiefly concerned with the kind of questions that might be expected from examiners of Yale College. The only way I knew was the way I had been taught. Most of the inspiration that I had imbibed from Wheeler's Seminar was rated as nonsense. I know now that the trouble was not that I had absorbed too much but that I knew too little. My ideals had expanded, but the means of attaining them had not kept pace.

The next three years were spent in managing a preparatory school where I expected to find greater freedom, but again all the ideals built up under great teachers crumbled under the necessity of getting boys into college. As soon as I could afford it, I rebelled and set out for Europe to see if there was not some better way.

For two years I spent more than half-time in the classrooms of the elementary and secondary schools of Germany with short excursions to France and England (where at that time following the Venezuelan episode Americans were not particularly welcome). What I saw in the classrooms I discussed at length with teachers and administrative officers and when the universities were in session I heard lectures by the eminent scholars of Jena, Leipzig, and Berlin.

Conscious of the extraordinary influence of German universities on higher education in America, and painfully aware of the pressure of American colleges upon our lower schools, I had anticipated finding complete harmony of theory and practice all along the line in the German educational system. It soon became evident, however, that the educational theories emanating from university sources and accepted without question by two generations of American students, whose acquaintance was solely with university practice, had

colored the perspective of American authors. Apparently the gap between theories expounded by university savants and the practice of the schools was a gulf contrived to confound the foreign visitor. The forward thinking of the university had little influence upon a school system dominated by the decrees of an autocratic government.

As I followed the teaching in the schools, where masters were using essentially the same subjects as those found in American schools, I was impressed with the difference between results obtained under German control and those that might be expected under other conditions. Indeed, I felt that if I had been taught by German teachers in New York, with German thoroughness and German skill, I could still have come out an American citizen, but subjected to the same instruction in Germany I should inevitably have become a German subject. In New York, I knew, no amount of tutelage by way of school instruction could have shut me out from the influence of home and my social environment, and by the same token, I realized that the German schoolboy was getting out of school that which made him a German.

My quest, therefore, narrowed down to an understanding of German education versus German instruction—*Erziehung und Unterricht*. So far as presenta-

tion of subjects of the curriculum was concerned the only significant difference was in the teacher's scholarship and his skill in the selection of materials and methods of presenting them. German schools, however, were surrounded by other influences—notably the rigid discipline both in and out of school, the driving force of an examination system that fixed the social standing and the military preferment of the student, the restriction of his learning and doing to what was permitted in school, his obligation to devote years to military training—all imposed by governmental authority to the end that oncoming generations should be God-fearing, self-supporting, obedient subjects of Imperial Germany. While I admired the skill of German teachers and was humbled before their scholarship, I realized that German education was wholly foreign to the ideals of American life.

No better proving ground could be found in this country for trying out my plans than was accorded me in the University of Colorado. A small institution in a new and progressive state, staffed by a group of scholarly young men singularly free from academic tradition, was itself a challenge to high endeavor. Service to the public was a prime condition of the University's existence. Like the public schools it was governed by trustees elected by popular vote. Con-

tacts, therefore, were easy to make. Principals and teachers were anxious to do their part in making their schools representative of the best in American education.

The job, as I saw it, was more than 'keeping school'; it was to use the schools from kindergarten to university as a means of co-ordinating formal instruction with the educational influences proceeding from the home, the church, the press, and other social forces. In a word, to make the schools instruments of education as well as means of instruction. Teachers capable of such service would be truly professional workers and take their place alongside of professional experts in law, medicine, and engineering. The universities made provision for the professional training of lawyers, physicians, and engineers. Why not a professional school for teachers, the one class recognized by the Fathers as indispensably necessary for the maintenance of the Republic?

The legacy that came to be from nearly twenty years of striving to build Teachers College was, first, the desire of the philanthropist to make life better worth living particularly among the underprivileged classes and, second, a faculty psychology which upheld discipline as the main objective of education. My own experience convinced me of the futility of such pro-

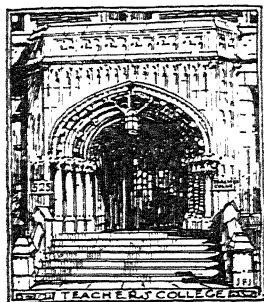
cedure as I had been subjected to in my school days and inspired me with the ambition to make American schools genuine service agencies in our democratic society. It seemed to me, therefore, that the interests of philanthropists and educationists, which had caused so much dissension during the preceding ten years, were really not in conflict at all—provided a more liberal philosophy could have the cordial support of an administration unhampered by scholastic tradition.

What happened when, with such visions in my head, I found myself in an institution with the history that I have described, is the subject of my next lecture.

THE OUTLOOK IN 1897

CHAPTER TWO

THE OUTLOOK IN 1897



THE two streams of influence that joined in Teachers College, so aptly pictured by Doctor Hervey, did not placidly pursue their courses during his term as President from 1891 to 1897. The waters were troubled by the reluctance of the philanthropists to give precedence to educational leadership. A Lady Principal shared the administration with the President and, I suspect, she stood closer to the sources of financial support than the President himself. Whatever the cause, the resignation of the President and two professors of psychology and methods of teaching as of July 1, 1897, and the death of the Lady Principal later in the summer, cleared the way for a new deal.

My invitation to join the faculty came from my old friend and teacher, Doctor Wheeler, who had tentatively accepted the presidency. He wrote me that as

he was not familiar with the technical training of teachers he wanted me to head that department. I had visited the College at 'Number 9' some ten years before and was not greatly impressed with what I saw, but I concluded if it had become good enough for Wheeler it was good enough for me. Accordingly I resigned a post in which I was happy and which gave me a free field for whatever ability I had, for a leap in the dark which I was soon to regret as positively as later on I was to rejoice in the opportunity it gave me.

As soon as I could be honorably released I came on to New York. Miss Dodge met me at the front door of Teachers College. She presented me at once to Doctor William T. Harris who had paved the way for my work abroad by both personal and official introductions and to whom I had paid obeisance for many years as the acknowledged leader of educational thought in America. He was about to give the final lecture in a course for which he had been engaged to fill in the gap before my arrival. Indeed, I was glad it was his last appearance, because I should have been terrified if he had ventured to attend my initial performance.

At the first opportunity Miss Dodge told me that Doctor Wheeler had decided not to accept the presidency. This was a body blow. My one objective in accepting the professorship was that I might be asso-

ciated with the man who had inspired me to become a teacher. Now that I was stranded with all bridges burnt behind me I began to survey the situation. Here was a private normal school with sixty-nine regular students of junior-college grade and a demonstration school of some four hundred pupils. And what, with my ignorance of high finance, was an insuperable obstacle, an annual deficit in current expenses of \$80,000—an amount well-nigh sufficient to run the University of Colorado. Coming from the West, where the emphasis was all upon publicly supported schools from the lowest grades to the university, I could see no place for such an institution.

My dream was of a professional school of university rank. Consequently a few days later when Miss Dodge brought Mr. Macy to call on me, our conversation turned on the type of man needed for the presidency. They had under consideration an eminent professor of Latin in an eastern college and the superintendent of schools of Toronto, Canada. Neither of these men fitted into my conception of a professional school. So I suggested that our proximity to Columbia University, which was just settling its new plant across the street, might lead to an affiliation of advantage to both parties.

I was not aware that President Barnard had reported again and again to his Trustees in the 80's the want of

attention in Columbia College to what he declared was its own most important business, viz., the study of education as a science. His exposition, supported by incisive argument and a wealth of illustration, fell on deaf ears and was buried without decent consideration in the archives of the Board. Nor did I know then that as recently as 1892, the Trustees of Teachers College, grown weary, I fancy, with carrying the incubus imposed by its educational Frankenstein, had offered to turn the institution over to the University, only to have the proposal rejected by the University Council on the grounds that "there is no such subject as Education and moreover it would bring into the University women who are not wanted."

In ignorance, therefore, of the accumulated opposition, not to say hostility, in the University of twenty years' standing, I had the temerity to propose that a president of Teachers College could be dispensed with if the institution were made a professional school in the University system. Asked to put the plan in writing, I did so overnight; it was copied by our one lone stenographer and sent on to Miss Dodge. Nothing further was asked of me for about two weeks until the third Thursday of November when I was called from class late in the afternoon, to meet at the foot of the stairs at the main entrance, Spencer Trask, Chairman of the

Teachers College Trustees, and President Low of the University.

Mr. Trask handed me a written document saying that the Trustees were in session and ready to adopt my plan of affiliation with the University but that President Low had stipulated I should be Dean. One glance at the paper in my hand showed plainly enough that instead of becoming a professional school on a par with the others, we were to be the stepchild of the University department of Philosophy and Education. My reply was that the plan was not mine and that I was not qualified to be dean. My ambition was to teach, not to spend time in administrative work.

Mr. Low was a great harmonizer. As for the deanship, he said, that was a temporary arrangement until a suitable person could be found, and as for the agreement then proposed it was the only one that the University was willing to accept. He assured me, however, he had no doubt that all I wanted could be had in good time. Fearful of what might happen if an academician were to become president I forced myself to say that in the emergency I would do what I could, provided I might resume my teaching the following year.

Thereupon the Trustees adopted the plan as revised by the University and elected me Dean for the current year. Despite two formal resignations within the en-

suing twelve months I was unable to extricate myself for fully thirty years from the web in which I had so trustingly enmeshed myself.

The agreement set as the price of adoption into the University family, the surrender of all control over courses leading to a degree. In effect we were officially restricted to the management of the Horace Mann School and to such offering as we cared to make for special and technical students who were not qualified for admission under some University faculty.

Another important article of the agreement was that "the University is and shall be under no implied obligation, responsibility, or liability of any kind whatsoever for the maintenance, support, direction, or management of Teachers College, or for the disbursement of the income thereof." In other words, our children might have the University name but we were required to feed and clothe them. We soon found a way, however, of asserting our paternity by making candidacy for a Teachers College diploma, a concession made to our professional interests, prerequisite to candidacy for a degree. Two years later we were granted control of an undergraduate curriculum leading to the degree of Bachelor of Science, but it was eighteen years before we attained the status of a sovereign state in a federal union.

In surveying this early history, humiliating as it sometimes was, I realize that it was too much to expect that a university, itself barely emerged from a conventional college, would accept on faith a new type of professional education for which neither the financial support nor a competent staff was in sight. Events proved the wisdom of letting us win the right to university rank by actual demonstration. If the growing pains of youth are really due to malnutrition, perhaps it was providential that we were required to fatten up before reaching maturity.

We certainly had the will to grow but without the fostering care of President Low and the munificent support of our Trustees we should have come badly off. The significant fact to note here is that President Low was a layman at the head of an expanding University and that our Trustees were laymen. It was this fortunate juncture of faith and experience that made the Teachers College of today a possibility—faith in the ideals of the undertaking, tempered by practical experience with expert service in public affairs.

One should remember that forty years ago segregated professional schools had barely left the proprietary stage. Theological schools were owned and dominated by sectarian interests; schools of medicine were controlled by groups of practitioners; the Colum-

bia Law School had but recently been taken over from Professor Dwight; normal schools stood by themselves apart and quite generally were restricted to the subject matter and methods of the elementary school.

Such provision as had been made in the universities for the study of education, as in Michigan, Iowa, Columbia, Harvard, California, and Stanford, was the establishment of departments of the usual collegiate type. Nowhere was there a faculty of education comparable to the faculties of law, medicine, and engineering. For a generation the idea of departmental development as the proper organization of a university, an idea imported direct from Germany, had been growing apace. It conformed very neatly with the practice of American colleges of centering the offering in any subject around the person of the professor oldest in service. Newcomers began at the bottom and were subject to the one-man rule of the top.

Quite naturally, too, these ruling elders viewed with suspicion any proposal that tended to spread over a wider field the funds already inadequate for their own needs. Moreover, at a time when mental discipline was held to be the chief end of all education, it could honestly be asserted that subjects of long standing and in practice not found wanting were superior to new and untried ones. Hence every new offering had to force

its way into the sacred circle and be held in contempt until death or retirement of its opponents made a vacancy in the hierarchy.

It is also worth noting that the system of one-man control was not confined to the higher institutions. The public schools, particularly those in the Middle West, were in the hands of powerful school superintendents. Looking backward, it does us no credit to belittle the professional contribution of these men. Many of them were exceptionally able organizers and administrative officers who dominated educational thought and practice in an age when order was emerging from chaos in public education—such men as Harris and Soldan of St. Louis, White of Cincinnati, Greenwood of Kansas City, and Maxwell of Brooklyn, later the first superintendent of schools in New York. They were the feudal barons of the pedagogical realm, the educational élite of the golden age of rugged individualism. They were the Rockefellers, the Carnegies, the Morgans of our profession, when giants towered over the common herd.

We were the little fellows, but time was on our side. Dissatisfaction with the aridity and formalism of the schools was finding expression. Henry Adams, writing in his autobiography of his Harvard days, says that if “the student got little from his mates, he got little more

from his masters." The bitterest critique of prevailing practice in college preparatory work that I know of was made in President Barnard's Report in 1881, which, as he said a year later, "had (has) lost none of its importance from the fact that its presentation at that time was unattended with the hoped-for success from the favorable consideration of the Trustees."

I can quote only one sentence from this remarkable document: "By immuring an unhappy lad within the four blank walls of a schoolroom, and constraining him to fasten his thoughts upon a series of abstractions to which the power of his intelligence is unequal, we subject his perspective faculties in a long-continued and unnatural inaction, by which, if they are not completely paralyzed, they are certainly dwarfed, and prevented forever from attaining even that degree of development which nature alone, unassisted by educational helps, would have given them."

The famous Committee of Ten had grappled with the problem of the secondary school and later the Committee of Fifteen undertook to instill life into the elementary program. Some teachers were ready to try new methods of dealing with old subjects, and a new type of school superintendent and school principal stood in the offing. This combination of pedagogical unrest, the stirrings of a new social era, our location

in the midst of a tenth of the population of the United States, and our association, however tenuous, with a great university, gave us our chance—and we took it.

Professional service, as I conceived it, comprehends not merely the ability to perform certain acts of a highly technical character but also to understand the reason for such action in a particular situation, in order that proper materials and methods be used to attain some worthy end. How and when to act, why a certain procedure is preferable to some other, what knowledge and skill are requisite for the purpose—these are the objectives of professional education. Some skills can be acquired by routine practice, but skills worthy to be called professional are guided by an intelligent appreciation of available materials, of their sources, selection, and adaptation to the business in hand.

It seemed to me, therefore, that we needed to know more about the learner and learning, more about past achievement and present practice at home and abroad, more about possible materials of instruction in schools of all grades, more about school management and administration, and more about the purpose of it all in relation to the teacher, the student, and society at large.

It is now apparent that I was injecting a new tributary into the two streams of influence that had so far determined the career of the College. To the philan-

thropic influence which had always held first place by virtue of its financial strength, and to the scholastic ideal which would subsume the enterprise as a subject under an academic faculty, I proposed a plan that should incorporate both the scholastic and the philanthropic ideals in a school with its own independent faculty responsible directly to professional needs. The contest between these three ideals for supremacy enlivened the first six years of my administration.

The time intervening between my election as Dean in November and my formal entrance upon the office in January—at least what was left over after conducting classes in psychology, history of education, and general method—was spent in making internal adjustments to the new organization and in scouting for help to implement the scheme.

I was especially anxious to make a bid for advanced students. A course in school supervision and school management was on the program. Occupied as I was—not to say disqualified for obvious reasons—I made bold to approach Superintendent Gilbert of Newark with the argument that inasmuch as he had written a little book on school management he was the man to help us out. Asked what I had in mind, I told him that such a course should be aimed at prospective school principals. He wanted to know how much time would

be allotted to the course. I said that to have graduate credit it should run at least two hours throughout the year. His hands went up in astonishment. "Why," he said, "I can tell all I know in six weeks." My rejoinder was that I wasn't as much concerned with what he could tell as with what the students should learn. "Why not have them investigate what the schools are doing," I asked, "and how school systems are being managed?" "Do you propose," he said, "to have these students visit schools, pry into their methods, and quiz the superintendent about how he conducts his business? If so you are barking up the wrong tree. All that the superintendent wants the public to know can be found in his reports. As for myself, I have never visited another superintendent except as a friendly caller, or perhaps to steal a teacher. Snooping around just can't be done; it isn't ethical." Nevertheless, after prayerful thought and repeated conferences, he gave the course and started us on the road so well paved by Dutton, Snedden, Strayer, and their associates.

During the Christmas holidays I wrote from cover to cover an Announcement of regulations and a list of courses for the following year, and had it printed in time for me to take it, in February, to the meeting of the Department of Superintendence in Chattanooga. I had never attended one of these conferences and had

attended only two meetings of the National Education Association. In fact I knew only a few of the leading schoolmen. Nevertheless, I couldn't afford to miss the chance of advertising my wares, even though it were to meet with rebuffs at every turn. One superintendent, whom I cornered on the train, glanced over the catalogue and then curtly remarked, "Young man, you don't seem to know your job. The only way to run a normal school is the way I did it in New Britain. Better look it up."

Nor did I succeed much better with influential heads of departments in Columbia. Even Doctor Butler asked me where I expected to get students for the course on foreign school systems restricted to college graduates with a reading knowledge of French and German. My answer, rather flippant I fear, was that at any rate it looked well in the catalogue.

I can't pretend that I knew better than my elders what was wanted or what was feasible. It may have been the rashness of youth, or possibly the fact that I had only one year to serve, that led me to take desperate chances. Assured, however, by the Trustees of the College that a prospective deficit of \$100,000 would be met if necessary to carry out my plans, and with the personal encouragement of Miss Dodge and Mr. Macy, I went ahead.

In January I got the consent of Doctor McMurry to join our staff, but a young instructor in history who was dividing his time between the College and the Horace Mann School was harder to convince that his opportunity lay in the professional field. He doubted that there was such a subject as the history of education. Somehow when he began digging into it he unearthed so much good ore that it required an encyclopedia to describe it. His name was Paul Monroe.

Meantime the Trustees established three fellowships of \$500 each which I used as a bait. Some desultory correspondence was had with persons in the West who were interested in Doctor McMurry, but not until midsummer was I assured of three candidates for my pet course on foreign schools. Registration day came. I was not prepared for the time-consuming duty of ruling on exceptional cases referred to the Dean (our administrative staff consisted of a registrar, a bookkeeper, and one stenographer). No one in trouble had asked about my particular course and it looked as if the three who had been bribed with fellowships would constitute the class. Imagine my surprise, therefore, when at the first meeting scheduled for the alcove adjoining the stackroom of the library, I found the place standing full of persons who looked like genuine graduate students—thirty-four of them.

The materials which I had collected abroad were stowed on a shelf convenient to a table seating six, a quite satisfactory arrangement, as I thought, for the expected class. Assuming that a mistake had been made I cited the requirements of the course only to have all present say that they qualified. My only recourse was to ask them to see me individually and after combing over the whole list I still had twenty-three left on my conscience. It being impossible to turn the well-known trick of letting students teach themselves, I had to turn my first seminar into a lecture course.

I cite this personal experience as evidence that we had not misjudged the trend of the times. Doctor McMurry, better known than I was, had a registration of eighty-three in the first semester and two hundred nineteen the second semester. All told in the year 1898-1899 we had eighty-six college graduates, a number more significant than the thousands now on your roll.

While it is true that this influx of graduate students quite overwhelmed us, the fact that they came at all was sufficient answer to the dire forebodings of disaster that had hovered about us for months past. Moreover, tension was relieved by a healthy growth in undergraduate registration despite the lengthening of all curricula from two years to four years beyond the high school. We now had the students. The problem was

what to do with them. An account of how we met that problem is the theme of my next lecture, but I want here and now to express my appreciation of the help given by students in reaching a solution.

At first most of the graduate students were teachers or principals in or near New York; others were connected with normal schools or western universities. They brought with them maturity of judgment and a wide diversity of experience. Ambitious they all were, else they would not have been there. What we had to offer was opportunity, and the inducement to join us in opening up new fields was the lure that brought such women as Naomi Norsworthy, Romiett Stevens, and Jean Broadhurst, and such men as Broome, Cubberley, Elliott, Snedden, Suzzallo, Strayer, Swift, and Payne—to mention only a few of the pioneers. Their co-operation was of inestimable worth not only in their individual achievements but particularly in helping us establish a policy of co-operation between faculty and students which has always seemed to me to be the essence of correct method in professional education. For such a legacy Teachers College should be profoundly grateful.

The establishment of this lectureship by the present Board of Trustees gives me the chance to speak of some former members of that Board whose wise counsel and

generous benefactions we still enjoy—Mrs. Bryson, Mrs. Thompson, the Macys (mother and son), the Dodges (father and daughter), and Mr. Milbank, to whom we owe the buildings that bear their names. They and others who helped carry the load of recurring deficits, while the plant was building, equipment was needed, and endowment was hoped for, gave twice in giving early and confirmed their faith by their works.

There is no invidious distinction in singling out two members of the Board with whom I came in closest touch—Grace H. Dodge and V. Everit Macy. Professor Kilpatrick, who is to hold the lectureship next year that alternates with this one, will find in the life of Mr. and Mrs. Macy (I never think of them separately; they worked in team in singular felicity and effectiveness) a practical demonstration of his own ideals of citizenship. My first meeting with Mr. Macy, as I have related, was when we discussed possible affiliation with the University. He was then about twenty-five years of age and had just returned from his honeymoon. Later when I met Mrs. Macy I was welcomed to their home and family life. Many were the visits that I paid to 'Chilmark' to get the encouragement that I needed to face the financial problems of a hungry institution. When a new enterprise was proposed or another pro-

fessor was needed I would present the case to Miss Dodge who would say "We will find the funds"; then I would discuss it with Mr. Macy and get his answer. "Mrs. Macy and I will furnish the cash until college funds can permanently care for it." In this manner, and with Miss Dodge's ability to interest other donors, the Macys either underwrote or actually paid the bills for every advance we made in staff appointment or additions to plant and permanent funds.

Of the many illustrations of the Macy faith in education I will cite only one. Soon after the World War and following a tour of the Mediterranean and the Near East, Mr. Macy came to me with a proposal to provide the means of bringing outstanding students of the Old World, particularly of eastern Europe and the Near East, for a year of study in Teachers College. Despairing of getting mutual understanding and international good will by diplomatic means, he declared the hope of the future lies in education. I am thankful that the year before he died he was able to attend a conference in Geneva, where some fifty former Macy Fellows demonstrated to his satisfaction that his solution of Old-World problems is more promising than political pacts and diplomatic conferences. Teachers College students in the strategic posts of the school systems of many nations cannot fail to carry over to

oncoming generations a better understanding of democratic ideals and a more tolerant international attitude.

Miss Dodge fondly spoke of Teachers College as her oldest child. No mother ever lavished more love upon her offspring or watched more carefully its development. Reared in a family of wealth and social standing, her one mission in life was to aid those less fortunate than herself. From girlhood to the end of a busy life, when she saw something to do she did it. She never waited to formulate a philosophy or to rationalize her action. She embraced no cause and led no crusade. She simply gave herself along with her gift of friendship, her enthusiasm, and her confidence in the Christian virtues of faith, hope, and charity. She was the guiding hand and financial backer of the Kitchen Garden Association and the Industrial Education Association. She nursed the young Teachers College through the perils of infancy and kept her faith despite aberrations of its adolescence. None of us knows the extent of her personal gifts to College funds but I do know that sometimes she went without personal comforts in order that we might be more comfortable. The financial records show hundreds of thousands received from her and her family and at her death she willed us more than a million dollars from her personal fortune. As Treasurer of the College until 1911 she was responsible for

meeting the annual deficit which for years together ranged from \$60,000 to \$100,000. It was faith in our mission and her ability to inspire like confidence in others that brought to us directly or indirectly most of the large gifts for buildings, equipment, salary increases, and endowment. But above all reckoning of dollars, what I prize most is the legacy of her spirit of service. It was already so deeply imbedded in the social life of the College as I found it and so zealously guarded during her life that I trust it will always remain our conscience to check us when tempted to stray into paths of expediency or formal professionalism.

Would you see her monument? Look about you.

TEACHERS COLLEGE
BECOMES A PROFESSIONAL SCHOOL

CHAPTER THREE

TEACHERS COLLEGE BECOMES A PROFESSIONAL SCHOOL



AT the turn of the century the reorganization of Teachers College was practically complete. President Low never swerved in his belief that there was a place in the University system for a professional school of education. In his address at our 1898 commencement he said, somewhat optimistically as events proved, that "the University has accepted Teachers College as its professional school for teachers and has given to it the University rank of its law school and school of medicine. . . . I believe that any candid person who will examine the recent Announcement of Teachers College, which represents the combined strength of the College and the University, will admit that no such opportunity is to be found at the present time, either in this country or abroad, for the practical study of education in all

its relations. . . . The University and Teachers College have grown into this relationship almost without intending it, and the relationship is likely to justify itself and to endure, because it is founded upon the solid foundations of good sense and mutual advantage." As an evidence of his good faith and confidence in us he secured in 1900 University recognition of our undergraduate curricula as worthy of the degree of Bachelor of Science.

At the end of President Low's administration, therefore, we had gained, so far as undergraduate work was concerned, the essential point in my plan of three years earlier, but a corresponding control over graduate study was withheld for another fifteen years until we had demonstrated that the life of a professional school was as dependent upon research and investigation as any department in the academic field.

Meantime the growth of the student body had led me, in November, 1898, to make a special report to our Trustees in which I advocated a separate building for the Horace Mann School, the establishment of a new experimental school, and the probable need of a summer session. The next year I was able to announce that the experimental school was in operation and that funds were in hand to erect the building now facing on Broadway. In 1900, I told of the reorganization of the

Horace Mann School as it took possession of its new plant and the appointment of a professor of school administration to supervise both schools, of provision for a professional chair in Latin and Greek, and of the introduction of advanced courses for teachers of nurses. The year 1900-1901 was signalized by the foundation of the *Teachers College Record*, a donation of nine \$500 scholarships for students from the South, the appointments of professors of mathematics and physical education, and the gift of \$100,000 from Mr. Speyer for the Speyer School.

Needless to say that the advance in these three years brought with it extraordinary increase in expenses. In 1897-1898 the total budget for current expenses was \$169,964; in 1899-1900 it was \$212,278. New buildings, new equipment, and new instructors are expensive items. Dormitory requirements were a cause of anxiety—and from what I hear they are still troublesome. The business administration of the plant was no small problem. Each new undertaking somehow affected the educational welfare of the institution and eventually found its way to the Dean.

I began at the ripe age of thirty-three without business experience or special training for institutional management. None of us had any settled philosophy of education and there was no common denominator in

the wide range of our practical experiences. Perhaps someone will argue that what happened in Teachers College is itself a refutation of the basic principle to which we subscribed, that to claim even a measure of success for what was accomplished is tantamount to denying the necessity of professional training. I am reminded, however, of the eminent oculist who is reputed to have declared that he had spoiled a bushel of eyes before he learned to operate successfully on one. Doubtless our students had ample cause for complaint, but we have the satisfaction of knowing that some of them, the world over, are meeting harder tasks than ours was and succeeding better than we did.

In true pioneer fashion we pooled our resources. At first, while the staff was small, we met around my own dinner table and spent a good part of the night in confession of sins, vicariously portraying the faults of others as well as confessing our own, the while striving for some agreement on ways and means of remedying them. These meetings maintained regularly for many years served not only to define our policy, clarify our thinking, and ascertain the needs of our students, but also they taught us how to work in team, how to give and take honest criticism, and how to respect the integrity of personal opinion when backed by loyalty to the common cause.

No record of these conferences was ever kept and no proposal was ever agreed upon until the last objector made it unanimous. Pressed as we were for time and urgent as was the demand for quick decisions in cases that seemed to some to be imperative, I recall with pride the fact that one important issue was held open for three years awaiting the consent of the professor of manual training.

Speaking for every member of the staff during the six years evenly divided between the nineteenth century and the twentieth—years in which we were getting our own professional training and incidentally defining a new type of professional school—I declare these years to be the richest in our lives. The effect, in its fervor, enthusiasm, and spiritual uplift, was akin to a religious revival. It inspired us with a faith that we, too, could move mountains.

Owing to the steadily growing number of students the most pressing need was for more instructors. I knew that our teachers should be scholars, not only masters in their respective fields but also products of a wider culture, who had the gift of inciting students to scholarly endeavor. Men who combined these qualifications were scarce and those in collegiate positions could hardly be expected to take a chance in an enterprise generally labeled as unscholarly. Moreover, we

needed men of open minds, men not confined in the ruts of academic tradition or habituated to traditional methods of research and investigation. That suggested men, to use an Irish bull, whose future was ahead rather than behind them.

I have already mentioned Doctor Monroe's hesitancy in making the shift from history and sociology to education. It is well known now that the change was as fortunate for him as it was advantageous to the College. So well did he lay the foundations of educational theory and practice as derived from the lives of the great masters of our profession and from the efforts of society to utilize their teachings in the advancement of civilization, that his work remains a guide to the history of education wherever it is pursued. His great chance, however, came years later as head of our International Institute in which his worldwide interests found full scope. As a promoter of international understanding and good will he ranks as a peer among statesmen who strive for peace in this troubled world.

The time was ripe for development of the field which we afterwards labeled educational psychology. Stanley Hall had opened it up by his child study. Colonel Parker and Doctor Sheldon were trying out practical uses of the new ideas. Professor Hinsdale had

dared challenge the authority of the doctrine of formal discipline. Doctor DeGarmo and the McMurrays had bearded the lions of tradition in their own dens. Accordingly we moved into the arena with a young Daniel named Thorndike. His promise was vouched for by his teachers, William James and Professor Cattell. After I had spent a day in his classroom at Western Reserve University, despite the fact that his investigations had dealt with mice and monkeys, I came away satisfied that he was worth trying out with humans. His record of instructor at the age of twenty-five, adjunct professor at twenty-seven, and professor at thirty is tangible evidence of our estimate of his worth. On behalf of his colleagues and the thousands of students who have profited from his instruction I gladly pay a tribute to his loyal service of nearly forty years to Teachers College.

To make amends for my sins as teacher of Greek, I was especially anxious to find someone who could realize the possibilities of instruction in the classics that once had been my dream. While Greek was fading from the picture of American schools, Latin was still the one subject outclassing all others in our high schools and was under fire for the same reasons that put Greek to flight—teachers' ignorance of the language and literature and of the contribution of the

classical world to modern times. After scanning the horizon, I spent a day with Professor Gildersleeve of Johns Hopkins University, the Nestor of American classical scholars and an ardent humanist, who flattered me by saying that if he were forty years younger he would take the chair himself in preference to any other that any institution could offer. As a substitute he named a young man on the faculty of Bryn Mawr College. I never knew whether Professor Lodge considered it the greater honor to wear Gildersleeve's shoes or to join the staff of Teachers College. Perhaps both ambitions were gratified when a few years later he refused the headship of the Latin Department of the University to remain in his Teachers College post. In his retirement I hope he has the satisfaction of knowing that he has left a permanent impression not only upon the practitioners in the field which he so ably represented but upon the policy of the College as well, by his insistence that accurate and broad knowledge is the well from which the waters are drawn for the enrichment of professional growth.

Mathematics was ever a bugbear to me, not because I couldn't do the sums in arithmetic or get fair marks in conic sections, but because I didn't see the use of it. No teacher ever indicated to me any application of mathematics to the teeming life around me. Stupid of

me, of course, but no credit to my teachers. And so when I heard that a young principal of an upstate New York Normal School was daring enough to lecture on the beauties of algebra, I went to Chicago with the express purpose of hearing what he had to say. Of course, I succumbed to his charms and was half convinced that he talked sense. At any rate David Eugene Smith was soon added to the staff, whereupon he proceeded to prove to us that his subject comes close to being the pivot on which the whole universe turns. And what is more significant in education has been his portrayal of the history of mathematics as steps in the evaluation of our cultural inheritance. If only he would stay put long enough in one place, now that he roams the earth in further search for his peculiar treasures, I would send him a greeting from this audience that should warm his heart and let him know how much we love him for all he has done for us and for our profession.

Just as we were entering upon a new venture of admitting to our fellowship trained nurses in search of better methods of conducting nurses' training schools—a beginning, by the way, of one of the largest departments of the College, which has had the nursing care of Adelaide Nutting, one of the ablest 'men' of either sex in our group—I had the good fortune to

find Doctor Wood. These two great leaders of physical education—the one concerned with the restoration to health of those in want of medical attention; the other concerned with ways and means of keeping the human machine in working condition—have contributed their full share to our effort to elevate teaching from a trade to a profession.

One other person in that pioneer group whose advice I sought long before he joined us in 1902 was Julius Sachs, the only venerable member of the 'old guard.' He had taken his bachelor's degree before I entered school and had earned his doctor's degree in Germany when I was a primary pupil. As headmaster of two of the foremost college preparatory schools in the East he had gained a fund of practical experience with which to counter the vagaries of theorists in secondary education. His scholarship, his culture, and his personal charm rightly gave him precedence among us neophytes. The College was honored by his consent to become our first professor of secondary education. The position could give him no distinction that he did not already have, but he brought to it ideals which I hope will always remain.

I could go on indefinitely telling bedtime stories to you children of how your parents happened to become your parents and what they did when they were

young. But the garrulity of age must be checked before fact is obscured by fancy. I could tell of the pride of the family in the climb from obscurity to fame of a score of others—Bigelow, Farnsworth, Bonser, Snedden, Johnson, Norsworthy, Stevens, Suzzallo, Strayer, to mention only a few of the newcomers. Perhaps obscurity is only a relative term when applied to them. They had when they came to us qualities which could not long be hidden—youth, ambition, intellectual honesty, and a flair for scholarly work.

It is no disparagement of the staff as I found it that I speak here only of those whom I had the honor of selecting. The link with the past was strengthened by the loyal support of Woodhull, Baker, Dodge, Castle, Kinne, Woolman, Runyan, and Richards in a period of unprecedented upheaval. To Professor Baker, the last of that group to retire, a cherished colleague of mine for thirty years, I extend sincere congratulations for the inspiration given to literally thousands of Teachers College students during the forty-five years of his professorship.

The problems that faced us at the turn of the century may be quite different from those you meet today, but, I fancy, the method of attack has not much altered. We were painfully aware that none of us knew his job well enough to do his duty. We had no great faith in

the omniscience of one another but, like Voltaire, we were ready to defend the right of each to state his belief even when we didn't believe it. It became, therefore, a settled policy, when some pet theory or practice seemed to be gaining ascendancy, to bring in an advocate of a different point of view. We could not accept a dictator either as administrative officer or as head professor. Students complained that they left us knowing little better what to think or do than when they came. We saw to it, however, that they were led into more ways of thinking and more ways of doing than they had before. Theirs the duty of facing their own problems honestly and finding a practical solution.

We accepted the dogma of the old theology that conviction of sin is the first step toward salvation. Who knows how many students Doctor McMurry convinced of their shortcomings out of their own mouths? No one who ever sat under him failed to realize the necessity of knowing basic facts and using them in logical sequence in any argument. Indeed, he was master of the art of debunking half-baked theories by demanding accurate statement of accepted facts. This was most valuable service at a time when any fad or quackery in practice was justified by specious argument by ignorant or unscrupulous advocates. And when I observe the character of patent-medicine advertising and

the prostitution of professional practice in other fields, to say nothing of the blatant bid of some so-called educators for public acclaim, I fear the period to which I refer has not yet come to an end.

Some may be saved by faith but a surer way is to heed the injunction to bring forth works meet for repentance. At a time when the public schools of New York City were closed after three p.m. on school days and all day on Saturday, Sunday, and holidays, when there were no public library, no public baths, no public recreational or social service in our community, we established the Speyer School for kindergarten and eight elementary grades and opened it to the public from early morning until ten o'clock at night every day in the year. The kindergarten room was also the social center for the neighborhood; there were a good loan library, a reading room, baths, and a gymnasium for young and old; and to make the enterprise still more attractive we provided living quarters for a resident staff. For thirty-seven years now, that School has been used to demonstrate some desirable modification of practice in our city schools. The idea, greatly extended and enormously enriched, has been incorporated in the Lincoln School through the foresight of Dr. Abraham Flexner and the generosity of the General Education Board.

The publicity given to what we were trying to do in our own schools, accentuated by the departmental offerings as published in the *Teachers College Record*, put us on the spot. Anyone could see that we were not doing what we preached. Subject after subject and department after department were subjected to the criticisms of the entire staff. We soon discovered that certain departments fostered under the old regime did not respond to the new ideas as quickly as did the more recent introductions. The manual arts, in particular, were disposed to stand pat on their record of twenty years' experience.

The Articles of Faith, formally adopted in 1887, as a bulwark against the rising tides of pedagogical heresies, with its stress upon the complete development of all the faculties, predisposed the representatives of manual training and domestic arts to rely upon the benefits of formal discipline as justification of their practices. The course in manual training followed a series of models from a paper knife to a pattern for casting a cogwheel which were displayed on a frieze encircling the walls of the manual training office. The course in sewing began with stitches, advanced to a one-piece apron, and went up the line to a doll's dress.

The method was once in good company when learning to read began with the alphabet. Many a weary

hour was spent with these teachers, indeed years passed, before they realized that their subjects were full of rich content, that they were dealing with raw materials which, when treated by mechanical processes and given the artistic touch, became staple articles of commerce, their values enhanced by each successive step. Their best claim to recognition in the school curriculum was their economic worth; the discipline afforded in manual work was a by-product.

In this connection, the service of Arthur W. Dow in shaping our ideals and methods in the practical arts deserves a whole chapter to itself. Some day, I hope, the story will be told in full. For the present I must be content to say that not only did his creative genius give a new impulse to the teaching of the fine arts but he also demonstrated the value of artistic treatment in all handiwork. From the format of a textbook to the landscaping of school grounds, from the design of a door panel to the furnishing of a home, from the weave of the cloth to the tailoring of a gown, he helped us appreciate the worth of art in the ordinary routine of living. He strengthened our faith in the Greek ideal that the beautiful, as well as the good and the true, has an abiding place in all education.

The kindergarten was another center of discontent. Its location, then as now, was where it caught the eye

of every casual visitor. No department had so many supporting friends and nowhere else was sentiment so influential in perpetuating slavish adherence to a system, even though its routine strained the eyes and hampered the natural growth of muscular energy. Moral suasion had no effect upon advocates of a system handed down *ex cathedra* and dominated by the personality of Susan E. Blow. It is to the lasting credit of Patty Hill that she dared meet the champion on her own grounds and in fair combat won the victory. The fact that for us it had been a struggle which lasted for ten long years testifies to the tenacity of inherited beliefs.

The echoes of such internal strife soon reached the ears of our supporters. Before Doctor McMurry had finished his first year with us he got the reputation of being a radical. Some visitor observing his method of teaching children in the presence of his college classes by way of demonstrating his ideal of good method, reported to Miss Dodge that his discipline was faulty, that correct habits of neatness and order were not enforced, and that his emphasis on self-activity must necessarily lead to license.

She was greatly alarmed and evidently consulted others on how best to check the institution in its downward career. Her first move was to show me a letter

to Doctor McMurtry, asking my consent to sending it to him, but primarily, I suspected, to acquaint me with the dangerous influences that I was harboring. My reply was a six-page, solidly typed letter in which I expounded such philosophy of education as I had in those days, before Thorndike and others of the 'old guard' had a chance to elaborate it. After thirty-eight years of repose in the vaults of Teachers College a faded copy of the original came back to me as I was preparing this lecture. Appropriate, indeed, were the words of Conrad which I once saw on the flyleaf of a first edition of his first book in a library in Wellington, New Zealand: "My first book. My best remembered sensation about it is the perpetual surprise that I should be able to do it at all.—Joseph Conrad."

My letter is too long to be repeated here but when these lectures get into print I want it published as an appendix. Suffice it to say that, despite my fears of the consequences in opposing a Trustee, never again did Miss Dodge raise such a question or permit anyone to use her official position as a means of influencing the Dean. Such self-restraint was the more remarkable when one recalls that for nearly twenty years she had been in daily contact, either in person or by letter, with that part of the work which roused her philanthropic interest. And perhaps I should add that never there-

after did any Trustee attempt, directly or indirectly, to restrain any member of the staff in doing his work as he thought best. That letter marked the end of external influence upon the professional policies of the faculty.

The period of rough-and-ready pioneering was passing out in 1903. We had then 729 students of whom 230 were college graduates, and 1,093 pupils in our schools, some \$2,141,737.12 invested in the plant, current expenses of \$310,969.56 and a deficit of \$71,285.00. The status of the College as a professional school was officially recognized but privately resented by some University savants. The internal organization of the institution was essentially the same as exists today. Good progress had been made in clearing up the underbrush in our pedagogical settlement and we were ready to pursue further the ideals of American democracy. As I see it, what has happened since 1903 is the natural evolution of principles which were then formulated.

Our relation to the University was still uncertain in 1903. Within a year our loyalty was questioned by the Columbia Trustees; the head professor of mathematics had denounced the appointment of a normal school man to a professorship; the head professor of history had publicly warned President Butler that the

reputation of the University would be jeopardized by further coddling of this parvenu institution; the head professor of Latin aired his opposition to women students by dubbing 120th Street 'hairpin alley.' For all of fifteen years I sat in the University Council quite aware that for me to advocate a measure was likely to defeat it. Such latent opposition, or perhaps our obvious success, may have led the President in 1914 to propose that the University take over Teachers College in its entirety—a proposal indignantly rejected when it was learned that no representatives of Teachers College could have a place on the Columbia board. But death and retirement have a way of changing policies. In 1915, after Teachers College had threatened to secede, an agreement was reached under which we have lived in amity.

Anyone who recalls the character of 'schoolkeeping' of fifty years ago—the deadly recitation of memorized facts from deadlier textbooks all taught to the tune of the hickory stick, and the joyous response to 'recess' and the long holidays when school 'let out'—must realize that 'schoolteaching' has been a transforming agency. In this accomplishment we have had some part.

Probably the most decisive change has been in securing popular support the country over for profes-

sional training and a broader conception of the function of the school in public education—an ideal that unifies the best interests of the individual with the welfare of the body politic. This trend has been marked by a better understanding of the learning process, by more suitable methods of instruction and school administration, and by more sympathetic treatment of individual differences. The problem which presents the most difficulty, and one that will be omnipresent as long as civilization advances and knowledge increases, is the selection of the best materials to implement our changing ideals.

The enormous amount of new knowledge put out in recent years, added to the accumulation of ages past, imposes a prodigious task upon teachers who are obliged to choose that which will be most serviceable for a particular purpose and to adapt it to the various grades, ages, and abilities of their students. It is at this point that the attitude of the teacher plays the most important role. Some teachers in every stage from kindergarten to the university seem to be academically minded; others apparently are born vocationally minded. Some think in terms of what the subject will do to the student; others are as naturally disposed to think of what the student will do with the subject. In either case something happens to the learner and he gets

something that he can use, but very properly the emphasis in an academic institution is put on *getting* and in a vocational school on *using*. In the college this emphasis begets an interest in a subject which finds its fruition in devotion to scholarship in the graduate school. The same subject taught in a professional school has a different use; the purpose is not to round out the subject in systematic fashion but to be of service in professional practice.

Let no one derogate the scholarship essential in professional education. Selection of appropriate materials from any field presupposes a knowledge of that field that is both comprehensive and evaluated. Lack of knowledge of the subject, failure to appreciate its cultural significance, and indifference to the use to which it can be put—these are the cardinal sins of the teaching profession. The ditch yawns wide for blind leaders of the blind.

Next to smug complacency with its concomitant self-righteousness, the greatest danger that any professional school encounters is the tendency of the specialist to become so enamored of his subject, so engrossed in its elaboration, so confident of its self-sufficiency, that he makes it an academic discipline rather than a source of professional enlightenment. Whether any professional school can realize its ideal is primarily

a matter of the scope of its scholarship and the attitude of its scholars toward what is needed in professional practice.

And when thought is taken of progress in American education, don't forget that our public schools from kindergarten to the state university are controlled by lay boards responsible to the people. They are imitative but they must be shown. School organization, school equipment, school curricula, school texts, teachers' salaries, and teaching methods, once demonstrated to be satisfactory, are as catching as measles. Commercial advertisers take advantage of this popular characteristic but they know that only the invention of demonstrated worth permanently holds the market. So, the inventions of the educator must be submitted to popular judgment by actual demonstration. Stimulating as preaching may be in leading to conversion, salvation is earned in the toil and sweat of everyday living. Would that our theorists could realize that faith without works is dead. One actual demonstration, whether by text materials, course of study, teaching method, accounting system or school building, is worth an encyclopedia of information on what should be done.

I sometimes think that we do not appreciate the modern significance of the old theological doctrines

of original sin and salvation by grace. Man is born to sin—the sin of finding satisfaction and contentment in the habits of thought and action imposed by the pressure of his environment—his language, social customs, and living conditions. But man is also born with a will to rebel and the desire to express himself. He is the only animal capable of being converted by the stimulation of new ideals that are reinforced by changed attitudes and implemented by expanded knowledge. His pedagogical saviour is the teacher who understands his personal problems, who has a personality that embodies high ideals, who exhibits in his daily contacts attitudes that are contagious, and who has the knowledge and skill—in a word, the saving grace—to bring forth works meet for repentance. Teachers College can have no greater mission than to equip its students for such missionary service.

As I look back over the years I am convinced that our career has had the providential guidance in which Grace Dodge placed her faith. What we are is the resultant of many interacting forces. If some one of these forces had gained pre-eminence Teachers College might have led a crusade for better living in the slums of New York City, or been a center for training girls for self-support in domestic service, or remained a normal school stressing kindergarten and the manual

arts, or become a department in a collegiate faculty with a clinic for testing theories of university scholars, or made a fetish of some particular philosophy as expounded by a master to whom we owed allegiance. The seeds of all these possibilities were planted in the springtime of our youth and needed only nursing care to come to fruition.

Instead, we have striven to build an institution that incorporates all these objectives in their ultimate solution, that gives free scope to genius and effort for both teachers and students, that imposes no exclusive doctrine and accepts no regimentation (thanks to a Board of Trustees ever tolerant of our vagaries)—an institution that seeks its reward, not in the fame of its professors or the brilliance of their achievements, but in the success of its graduates in the advancement of American civilization. What we are all the world may see; what we hope for is that we may be worthy of the confidence reposed in us by our founders and faithful exponents of their faith in Christian service.

APPENDIX

APPENDIX A

LETTER TO MISS DODGE

Miss Grace H. Dodge
Riverdale-on-Hudson
New York

June 15, 1899

Dear Miss Dodge:

I have read your letters to Prof. McMurry and Mrs. Woolman and I must say that I agree entirely with your point of view, but on the other hand I feel very confident that Prof. McMurry at least (I do not know Mrs. Woolman so well) does not believe what his critic apparently suggests. If I know Prof. McMurry's views at all he is aiming at precisely those qualities which you emphasize. The only question is, how shall these things be done? Of course it is possible he does not emphasize the necessity of these things as much as some of us would. As a matter of fact I have been hammering all the year on the acquisition of right habits, neatness, order, discipline, and, as I think of it now, I have not given a public address in the College since coming here which has not been on some phase of this theme. I came near alienating the sym-

See page 62 for an account of the circumstances that induced the writing of this letter. It may be of some historical interest both in what it says and in what it did.—J.E.R.

pathies of the whole Kindergarten Department a month or two ago by telling them that in my opinion it is quite as necessary that a child be taught to obey instantly and cheerfully as that he should be given the opportunity to express himself in playing. I have also spent many hours with Prof. Richards during the course of the year in discussing this very question, and it pleases me to know that he has finally taken the stand that in Manual Training two things at least are necessary; the furtherance of spontaneous self-activity and the development of self-control. I think we all recognize that spontaneity may be a very dangerous thing unless it is coupled with control. A character that must be forever quizzing itself to know whether an action is right or wrong, to decide whether a piece of work is well done, is not a character that has much value in practical life. The man who feels instinctively the right and acts it unhesitatingly is the man who is needed. Of course there must always be in every person's life many partings of the way where deep and serious thought is necessary to decide, but the hundred and one things of daily life must become matters of habit,—otherwise the character is weak, the person is wavering and vacillating.

This being the case, it is a very important part of educational work to know how to form habits as well as to decide what habits should be formed. The formation of habits depends upon physiological laws and requires repeated efforts in the fixing. We must needs recognize this fact, however, that for the most part habits are concrete

and related directly to specific acts. For example; it is perfectly easy to form the habit of good handwriting, or bad handwriting, for that matter, but the exactness required in this case does not necessarily have much bearing on exactness in other matters, for just in proportion as a habit is an unconscious one does it bear less relation to other actions. In fact our best habits are those to which we give no thought. It is scarcely to be expected, therefore, that what does not consciously concern us should influence greatly conscious effort in other directions.

This grand fact in turn makes it very questionable whether or not it is possible to train in exactness, 'nicety,' 'perfection' in the abstract. We may have all of these qualities exhibited in special directions. For example, it is quite possible that a person who has extremely neat handwriting may be very careless in dress; just as it is possible for a person who is an easy and fluent speaker to be an abominable speller.

The whole question, therefore, turns upon what habits and what ideals should be kept before the children and how these shall be individually formed or realized. Of course the means employed will always vary according to the thing to be attained. Personally I very much question whether the slow and so-called exact methods which have been employed quite commonly during the last 30 years in the teaching of handwriting accomplish their purpose. Most of us who have come up through that laborious drill have developed our hand in spite of that work rather than because of it. I remember very well in my own case, as a

boy of fifteen I had about the most wretched hand that could be imagined. Of a sudden I became aware of it and ashamed of it, and I remember how during the greater part of one summer I wasted reams of ordinary manilla paper in writing a few words over and over again. To this day when I take a pencil in my fingers and do not watch myself, I will write automatically Jackson and Bush. I am very confident that my own hand was formed more in the writing thousands of times of these two words than in any other way.

This shows on the one hand how abiding habits are formed; on the other hand it exhibits very clearly the necessity of having a definite ideal in mind. I did not spend these hours and days in writing these words without some idea in mind, and the idea I had was a very neat signature which attracted my attention and which stood constantly before me, making me ashamed of my own wretched chirography and inspiring me to develop something better. The practical lesson for educators in this experience is that I was not aiming at writing in general but at writing these particular words in a particular fashion. No one ever gets very far in educational work by following Mr. Warner's example in shooting the bear, when he tells us that he did not aim at anything in particular but merely the bear in general. The habits that are made under such circumstances are few and far between.

You are quite right, therefore, in saying that it is a mistake to place before the child anything which he must aim at generally, or that which is beyond his powers. If

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the work that he has to do does not interest him the chances are that he will very slowly approach the goal. On the other hand there are a good many things in life which are uninteresting. These must be met and downed. It is possible that the best preparation for overcoming unpleasant obstacles is the consciousness of having succeeded in tasks already performed.

There is another thing that I think perhaps may be said with justice, and that is that the ordinary man of affairs who has succeeded admirably in his own field is prone to think that the best way if not the only way of attaining a certain end is the course which he himself has pursued. Men who are thoroughly interested in the education of children become profoundly impressed with the great variety of training possible for the accomplishment of a definite end. The moment we begin to study what has been done in many cases, we find the conditions vary enormously. An excellent illustration of this principle is to be found in the practice of medicine. We laymen are over-prone to diagnose every case that attracts our attention on the basis of our own experiences. Of the hundreds of cases of defective vision which have come under my immediate observation I cannot recall an instance now where I did not feel, whether I expressed the thought or not, that the best thing the person could do would be to consult the man who remade my eyes after I had practically lost the use of them for nearly two years. In fact I have felt this so strongly in many cases that I have insisted upon many pupils of mine going to this same phy-

sician, and I have been surprised in some instances that the visit was unsuccessful and in others that the oculist should pursue a course apparently quite contrary to that which had succeeded so well in my case.

Now these are "feelings," as I have said; not the result of calm, deliberate judgment. I know when I think about it that there may be a great many cases of defective vision and that it is quite as important to get at the cause as to know how to accomplish the result. The impulse of a layman in case of inflamed eyes is to put something in or on them to allay the inflammation. The oculist may discover that the difficulty is one of impure blood, or astigmatism, neither of which would ordinarily suggest itself to the uninitiated. If education is ever to become a profession it must needs be that we have men who are capable of diagnosing cases in the same manner that our best physicians can point out the causes of disease. I very well recall how I provoked my parents in scribbling up everything that came in my way during that eventful summer when I learned to write, and I suspect that the pedagogue of the region would have been equally critical of my efforts. The fact is, however, that what I did then, with the expenditure of very little time and effort, counted for more than many weary hours I had previously spent in school and has saved me a great deal of time and effort ever since. It may be, therefore, that what appears on the surface careless or unworthy is of the highest value in the series.

One other point which I think should be borne in mind;

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namely, that no person qualified to judge of educational work would ever think, even for a moment, of passing judgment on a school or on the methods employed from observations made in a single lesson or a single day. Common sense ought to show anyone the impossibility of judging a great undertaking like this from a few moments' observation. If your friend will spend a week or a month of careful study in some department of the College I should then feel that she was competent to judge of what was being done if she is a bright woman and has had some experience in dealing with educational affairs. Just think for a moment of the absurdity of judging the efficiency of a great business institution by watching the operations of a subordinate official for an hour, or even after sitting an hour in the President's private office. It seems, however, to be a fact, and it is the one fact which to my mind proves more clearly than anything else that teaching is not yet a profession, namely, that everyone considers himself or herself competent to judge of excellence in educational work. Your friend would not for a moment think of passing the same criticisms on a physician even after spending a day in his private office. This is a very large fact that has to be taken into account, and I think under the circumstances it is worth while spending a great deal of effort in popularizing educational theories in order that the public as a whole may have some intelligent basis for forming judgments.

The only criticism which your friend makes which seems vital is the one having to do with the general princi-

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ple of neatness, accuracy, perfection in results and in the bearing of students. I entered upon a crusade against these defects a year ago and I have been constantly hammering at them ever since. I suppose it is a life's job, but in so far as it lies in my power I shall see to it that the idea of spontaneous self-activity and freedom of action be not carried to the extreme of license. There is a balance here which must be preserved. We must stand or fall on the basis of results attained, and if in the judgment of the world our results are not practical, then it must needs be that our methods are not educational.

I am very glad indeed that you have written these letters and I hope you will be sure to send them. They cannot but focus the attention upon some very necessary problems in education. I hope you will permit me to read the replies when they come.

Hoping that you will have a pleasant summer and one of rest which will enable you to take up the work of next year which no one else but you can do, and thanking you for all the hearty words of encouragement which you have given me during the year that is past, I remain,

Faithfully yours,
JAMES E. RUSSELL
Dean

APPENDIX B

REPORT TO THE TRUSTEES

To the Trustees of Teachers College June 30, 1927
Sirs:

I transmit herewith the annual reports of the Directors of the several schools, Institutes and administrative departments of the College.

In retiring from the office which I have held for thirty years, I wish to express to the Trustees of Teachers College, to the President of the University, and to all my colleagues my sincere appreciation of their generous forbearance of my shortcomings and their unfailing support in every worthy undertaking. In unity of effort, in devotion to an ideal, in happy personal relationships, these years are unsullied by any instance of disloyalty or petty selfishness. It is a record of which I am inordinately proud and for which I am indebted to the abounding good will of my colleagues.

This final report gives me the opportunity to review the progress of professional education during the thirty years past. In this movement Teachers College has had a part, but as I view the entire field I realize that the same forces which have influenced us have also been operative elsewhere.

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The growth of professional schools is perhaps the most striking characteristic in recent university history. A comparison of the offering in professional education to-day with that of a generation ago shows that not only have professional schools increased in number, but their facilities have expanded beyond bounds conceived as possible by the most enthusiastic promoters of professional training in any earlier decade. In Columbia University, for example, within the period of active administrative service of its present President, the three professional schools in existence when he took office have been entirely rebuilt and six new schools established, with teaching staff, equipment, and student body that stand comparison with the best in their respective fields. It is significant, too, that this expansion within the University system has not been at the expense of either collegiate or graduate instruction; Columbia College and the Schools of Political Science, Philosophy, and Pure Science are stronger and larger than they were when they provided whatever was given by way of fitting their students for the vocations now represented in the newer professional schools.

This development of professional education is the direct outcome, on the one hand, of increasing wealth—the ability to pay for expert service—and, on the other hand, of the increasing complexity of modern life and the inability of most people to cope with the forces that have been released through scientific discoveries. Our international relations and the rise of corporations and of great industrial establishments have affected our schools of law

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and business; discoveries of the causes of diseases and their preventive treatment are reflected in the curriculum of the medical school; the development of ore treatment to make low-grade ores profitably available has forced a new type of specialization in the school of mines; the invention of new machines for utilizing new discoveries gives new tasks in engineering; the designing and building of skyscrapers is a new problem in architecture; increasing competition in business, in journalism, in pharmacy, and in dentistry, as in every desirable vocation, bespeaks some means whereby those who are willing to fit themselves for superior service may get adequate training; the increase in printed matter in every field, the growth of specialization in every profession, and the general diffusion of knowledge among all classes of our population give an impetus to the training of librarians; and withal the pressure upon elementary and secondary teachers to supply these higher schools with better students and at the same time to satisfy patrons and taxpayers that they are getting their money's worth in better character and better citizens, is the *raison d'être* of the school of education. These are merely examples of changes that have been forced upon our professional schools in recent years by conditions that have arisen in the outside world. The willingness of the public to absorb the graduates of professional schools and to pay them in proportion to their ability to render expert service is the correlative factor in the development of professional education. Neither force operating alone could account for the present situation in the American university.

But what is professional education? The answer is that professional education as conceived to-day is not an initiation or introduction into some esoteric order. The professional worker claims no mystic gift or mysterious skill that sets him apart from his fellows. What he has can be acquired by anyone with the requisite intellectual ability who will follow the orderly progression prescribed for learners in his profession. All that the novice needs in his preparation is already in the possession of some master, or can be found in print. It is the business of the professional school to help him on the way that the masters have trod, to give him as much of the masters' knowledge as he can learn in the time at his disposal, to imbue him with their ideals, to put him in the way of acquiring their skill, and, if possible, to make him self-reliant in coping with new conditions and self-directive in the advancement of his profession. In other words, the professional school is a short cut to an objective taken under guides who know where they are going and how to avoid the pitfalls that beset the path of the lone traveller. The professional school, therefore, is at best only one means of providing what is needed by the professional worker. What he is and what he knows when he enters the professional school condition the training that the school can give, and what he is and what he does after he leaves the school determine his professional standing. Professional education does not begin with the professional school, nor does it end there. The professional school is merely a section of the route the novice takes on the way to mastery in his profession.

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The continuity of the educational process through lower schools, the college, the professional school, and on into practical life, is responsible for much of the confusion of mind regarding the materials and methods of instruction at the successive stages of advancement. It is conceded that a liberal education in the arts and sciences is an essential part of the equipment of every professional worker, but it is sometimes assumed that liberal education ends with secondary school or college. Another fallacious assumption is that professional education has no place in the college and ends with a degree from the professional school. The fact is that whatever a man learns tends either to liberalize or to degrade him, just as whatever he acquires through study and experience is an asset in his vocational capital. The difference that exists between liberal and professional education—and it is very real—is not primarily a matter of mental maturity or of grade of schooling or of subjects of instruction; it is primarily a matter of attitude of mind toward what is learned. In liberal education, the question is what will the subject do for the student; the question in professional education is what will the student do with the subject. In either case, something happens to the learner and he gets something that he can use, but very properly the emphasis is put on *getting* in the college, and on *using* in the professional school. In the college this emphasis begets an interest in a subject which finds its fruition in devotion to scholarship in the graduate schools. The same subject, taught in a professional school, has a different use; its purpose is not

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to round out the subject in systematic fashion, but to be of service in professional practice. The problem of the professional curriculum, therefore, is to choose those subjects which have the most direct bearing on practice, and to select within each subject those materials which can be best presented within the time allotted.

Professional schools, as constituted to-day, are offshoots of the college. Any homogeneous group of students who desire to enter a vocation that promises reasonable security of tenure and satisfactory economic return can find somewhere a group of instructors to guide them and an institution to sponsor their school. Long before this stage is reached, however, the vocation has been drawing on lower school and college for some of its equipment; the rest has been supplied by apprentice training under master workmen. Our oldest professional schools—theology, law, and medicine—grew up outside the college in response to public needs, but their students were nevertheless products of the college, from which was derived most of their intellectual sustenance. A survey of the vocations which college graduates enter nowadays will show that many occupations in public life, trade, and industry are in the position that law and medicine and the other professions were before the university set up its professional schools. From this vocational fringe surrounding the college and through the collegiate system of elective courses designed to meet individual needs, other professional schools will sometime come into being.

The American college, therefore, may be unintention-

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ally but nevertheless actually is making a large contribution to professional education. College students with a professional bent may pick and choose for themselves not only the subjects which by an elective system may be directed to their future needs, but they may also offset the systematic presentation of any subject along scholarly lines by choosing to dwell upon those parts for which they see some practical use. This is merely another way of saying that professional education is a matter of learning as well as of teaching. The mental set of both teacher and student must be taken into account.

No subject in the curriculum of a professional school can be taught in its entirety; if, indeed, such a thing is possible anywhere. The accumulation of materials in every field of human interest is now so great that the teacher of any subject at any level is at his wit's end to know how and what to choose. The only guide in the professional school is the needs of the practitioner. The minimum standard is the preparation that best fits the novice to take the next step on leaving school. Herein our professions differ. In some, like law and medicine, the graduate of the professional school enters upon a further period of supervised training under the eye of a master who will tolerate no mistakes. In other fields, like teaching, journalism, and pharmacy, the novice must stand on his own feet from the first day of practice. The amount and kind of technical training that should be provided in the professional school is fixed by these conditions. The one inflexible requirement is that what is needed in practice must be

taught. That school does best which fits its products to take the successive steps in their professional careers in confident, intelligent, and skillful fashion.

A corollary is that whatever should be taught is important. There can be no gradations in professional instruction comparable to lower and higher, or elementary, secondary, and collegiate, as found in the academic field; such distinctions exist only in the development of a subject. Whatever is needed in practice must be taught regardless of its simplicity or its complexity; it may be easy or it may be difficult to learn, but it must be mastered. This is the first law in professional training; its application does away at once with all deference to academic traditions regarding the hierarchy of subjects and of gradations within subjects.

A new professional school, an offshoot of the college, naturally carries with it many academic traditions. These traditions crop up in admission requirements, methods of teaching, examinations, degrees, student government, and the like, sometimes to the advantage of the professional school but quite as likely to the detriment of professional education. The most serious transfer, however, is the carrying over of the academic teacher. A professional interest and complacent willingness to accept a new salaried position is not sufficient qualification for teaching in a professional school. The academically minded teacher revels in his subject; he classifies, systematizes, expands, and magnifies it; he has such implicit faith in its educational efficacy that he believes no education complete without

it; scholarship is his ideal, and if he be a good teacher, his students are swept along by his enthusiasm. Such teachers are a blessing in an academic institution, but they make trouble in a professional school. Not that scholarship is not wanted in a professional school, but it is scholarship based on knowledge selected and evaluated in terms of professional needs. Even the professionally minded teacher carries over some of the tradition of his academic training. As he accumulates more and more information within his field, he is tempted to magnify the importance of what he knows; his pride in his acquisitions, especially if he engages in research, biases his judgment; the last new discovery looms large in his eyes—too large oftentimes for professional needs. Indeed, it is as possible to present a professional subject academically as an academic subject professionally. It is wholly a matter of emphasis in the selection and evaluation of materials of instruction.

One other fundamental problem presents itself in every professional school. It concerns the length of the curriculum. Here again academic tradition tends to prescribe certain intervals between degrees, but by and large the time spent in formal training for any profession is fixed by the economic return that may be expected from professional practice—not merely the return in dollars and cents, but also the return in human satisfactions. The school that prescribes too long a curriculum in comparison with other schools runs the risk of losing some of its best students and of keeping the plodders whose only hope of success in open competition is the advertising value of an

exclusive degree. Legal enactments or the united judgment of prominent representatives of a profession expressed through national organizations may go far toward fixing the limits of professional training, but the prospect of increased compensation for more expert service is the only safe basis for raising standards in any professional school.

The problem of problems in a professional school is to find a way of giving to students, in the limited time at their disposal, that knowledge and skill which the faculty knows are needed for subsequent professional advancement. There is vastly more material available than can be utilized. To meet new conditions or to make use of new materials, there is need of readjustments which are not always easy to secure. The first step is to modify old courses, generally by the process of addition without subtraction. The next step is to introduce new courses. Either method results ultimately in extending the hours of prescribed duties beyond the ability of students to do honest work. A notable example of this tendency was seen in the medical schools a few years ago when upward of forty hours a week were prescribed for class work. The only sensible thing to do under such circumstances was to reduce the prescription or to extend the curriculum. The medical schools took both ways out. They cut to reasonable length the number of hours prescribed for class work and, being unable to extend the curriculum upward, they forced it downward into the college by requiring a particular combination of courses for admission. By virtue of

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the elective system, the college has come to the rescue of the schools of law, medicine, and engineering. Other pre-professional courses will be set up in the college whenever the other professional schools discover that they are loaded with more than the traffic can bear.

There comes a time, however, when further extension, either downward or upward, is impossible. When these limits are reached, our professional schools will have arrived at the most critical stage of their development. They cannot do as the college does—offer a choice of courses to suit individual preferences; there is but one choice possible, and that is to choose to do what the profession demands of its novices.

One hindrance to unbiased selection of materials for instruction in a professional school is a departmental organization of the staff. Such an organization has the backing of academic tradition and is fostered in the professional school by pride of ownership in a particular field. A sense of proprietorship is the natural reaction to consciousness of possession. The recognition of peculiar responsibilities on the part of some members of a staff is inevitable for administrative purposes, if for no other reason; the expenditure of funds, the equipment of laboratories, and the management of clinical and hospital services are examples of duties that must be assigned to responsible persons. It does not follow, however, that such an assignment of duties confers the right to build up a department of the academic type. A department tends to magnify a subject and to expand a field of knowledge, a

process proper enough in an academic faculty or in the research work of a professional school, but wholly out of place in the regular course of instruction of professional novices. The chief danger of over-developed departments in a professional school is the reluctance of representatives of special interests to subordinate their proprietary claims to the welfare of the student body. The tendency is to check claim against claim as though a curriculum were an aggregation of departmental units rather than a consistent whole. When faculty politics enters, the contest degenerates into a game of give and take between departments in which pacifists suffer and progress is checked. Conservatism is the logical result of self-satisfaction and the possession of power.

Methods of teaching in a professional school have undergone a marked change in recent years. Blackstone's *Commentaries* and systematic lectures on materia medica were once staples of instruction in our elder schools. Gradually this thrusting of fundamental principles into the foreground has given way to the case system and bedside practice. If the old method tended to hide the trees in the woods, the new method tends to let the separate trees blot out the woods altogether. A rational theory would preserve the integrity of both concrete and abstract factors in teaching. A professional school is expected to develop special knowledge, attitudes, and skills in its students. It must take into consideration both the learner and the things to be learned. The neglect of the learner's capacity to learn is a cause of some troubles. The

lower his degree of intelligence the more stress upon minute direction and specific tasks. The boy apprenticed to a master workman must be shown what to do and how to do it, and kept in practice until right habits are formed. But at the other extreme, a student of high intelligence who is capable of making his own design may with greater assurance be left to find his own way of execution. The higher the degree of intelligence, the less need of stressing elementary techniques and the greater scope for self-reliance and self-direction. No professional school can escape the obligation of giving its students the skills necessary to advancement to the next step in their professional careers, but it requires some acumen to determine how much technical training is necessary at any particular stage. Considering all that might be taught, the limits of time forbid over-indulgence in any phase of the curriculum. Reduction in time devoted to technical training is correlated closely with increase in intellectual ability. Accordingly, the relative emphasis upon concrete and abstract knowledge is primarily a matter of intelligence of the learner.

The mark of superior scholarship is the ability to deal with abstract terms and fundamental principles. How to arrive at a basis of judgment, how to decide whether a thing is good or bad by reference to universals, how to analyze a situation and propose a plan for its modification, this is the aim of good teaching in its higher reaches. The professional school that does not attain some success in bringing its students up to this standard is little better than a trade school. Students of superior intelligence can easily

apprehend the fundamentals in any subject, and that without over-much dependence upon their teachers; some succeed in spite of their teaching. But all students are not of that mental caliber; some need help while learning to stand alone. In general, it may be said that most of our students need help and a good deal of it. With most of them, generalization comes late and by dint of much effort. From the teacher's standpoint, the safest approach is by way of concrete instance. Neither philosophy nor religion comes by baptism. Talking about fundamentals, lecturing about general principles, by the teacher, is not the same as understanding by the student. What the learner gets from his instruction is the only criterion of worthwhile teaching. Methods vary with the subject, with the teacher, and with the student. The search for "method," some universal panacea for all pedagogical ills, may be relegated to the realm of quackery. What actually happens with the "case method," the "project method," and the "laboratory method," and similar devices in teaching, is that a way is found by which the learner gets a clear-cut impression of a concrete instance. If then the instance is typical of an important series of facts, the learner comprehends quickly the abstract concept under which all such particulars are subsumed. It is the logical way of learning through a psychological approach. The chief virtue in the process, however, lies not so much in the method of approach as in the selection of the case or the project or the concrete instance. It must be one that points directly at the generalization which is sought. The

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generalization once understood, the way is paved for its use in eliminating particulars which do not conform to the standard. The danger in the "case method" is that the fundamental principle may never be adequately comprehended; whereas the fault in the systematic approach is that concrete instances may be wanting in reality. The systematic method copiously illustrated by cases and the use of cases to arrive at fundamentals are but the two sides of the same shield. Again the emphasis falls on the choice of materials of instruction, a choice dictated by the needs of the practitioner rather than by way of developing a subject.

It has been said that a person who lacks a philosophy of life is like a mariner on the high seas without chart or compass. Certainly a professional worker without an understanding of the principles of his profession has no reliable guide to professional success. It is not enough that he should be trained to act under conditions which are familiar. Professional growth must somehow keep pace with professional progress. The highest ideal sets a standard of achievement which outruns immediate needs and to which the practitioner may aspire only after years of persistent striving. The professional school that upholds such an ideal and consistently directs its energies to this end will surely inspire some of its students to attain the heights of their profession. But not all students have the stuff in them that makes leaders. Not all mariners are given an opportunity to stand on the bridge or to use chart and compass. While it is well to keep one's eyes on

the stars, it is the part of wisdom to watch the path. In every profession there are minor positions to be filled, subordinate posts in which reliable workers may give indispensable service, expert helpers on jobs requiring co-operative effort. A faculty that fails to take into account the range of professional service open to its graduates, or refuses to consider the personal qualifications of its students, is guilty of malpractice, however high its ideals may be. A little common sense mixed with ideals and standards and honors makes a good combination. The theorist in professional training needs the balance that only actual experience in professional practice can supply.

The problem of securing capable teachers for a professional school deserves serious consideration. The desirable qualifications of an instructor are so numerous as to make him a paragon of human excellence—a gentleman, a scholar, a professional expert, a teacher and philosopher. The emoluments of a teacher's job rarely equal the pay of a third-rate practitioner. Faith in youth and love of teaching are the chief inducements to professorial positions. Part-time service by men in active practice can be defended if their activities are confined to what they can do best; but their best is seldom revealed in good teaching, and never in good management. A professional school controlled by a faculty whose interests are centered elsewhere is in reality an orphanage administered by benevolent sectarians. Our best professional schools have rid themselves of philanthropic volunteers, but they have not always succeeded in replacing them with capable teachers.

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The best results are obtained by giving to young graduates who have the right personality and exceptional ability an opportunity to advance in scholarship and to acquaint themselves with professional practice, either by supervised contacts with professional workers or by actual participation in professional service. Young men trained along these lines are then ready for training as teachers. Unfortunately, this phase of professional equipment is still in the apprentice stage. At best, the novice in teaching can hope for only occasional visits of his superior officers, and too often their criticisms are not constructive. He works behind closed doors; he lacks the stimulus to improvement that would come from active competition with his fellows in shop or in office or in the field. Experience may bring confidence, but it is quite as likely to breed bad habits. Indifference to his task, or dislike of it, ultimately quenches all desire to excel. Just how such a situation can be remedied it is difficult to see. No systematic plan of teacher-training is likely to meet the needs of all professional schools. Some instruction in the psychology of individual differences and the learning process might have general application, and by proper criticism bad classroom habits might be overcome; but the fundamental problem in teaching lies in the selection of materials of instruction and their presentation in such a way as to meet professional needs. Inasmuch as our schools have little in common by way of materials or professional needs, it would seem that each one must work out its own salvation. With ever-increasing supply of new knowledge in every

field, with curricula crowded to the limit, with the public demand for new professional skills, it is apparent that the next step in advance in professional education must come through better equipped teachers.

The insistent appeal of society for increasingly expert service forces our professional schools to provide for specialization along many lines. In medicine the specialist has almost superseded the family doctor; in law no one aspires to fame in every department; in engineering there is sharp cleavage between service in the line and in the staff; in journalism the range is from business management to editorial writing; in teaching every leader is a specialist, because he stands alone. And, moreover, each specialty implies research and investigation. The search for information, the quest of discovery, not only is the means of defining the limits of a new field of knowledge, but it supplies a life-giving stream to the standard professional curriculum. Academic research may lead the investigator to take more interest in his subject than in his students, but professional research is so intimately tied up with practice that, like mercy, it blesses both him who gives and him who takes. Obviously, a course for beginners is not designed to train specialists. Whatever provision is made must be postgraduate.

Specialization of professional service is no new thing, but formal schooling for it is a recent introduction. In most fields the apprentice system still predominates; special knowledge and skills are picked up by working with a master. Co-operation with hospitals and the develop-

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ment of research in medical schools are beginning to offer a new route to medical specialists; journalism finds an opportunity in the difficulties encountered by reporters in getting the chance to qualify for special positions. Teachers College is an outstanding example of a professional school devoted exclusively to specialized training. The reason is that in our lower schools no systematic provision is made for supervised training of teachers after they leave the normal school, and little opportunity is given to qualify for higher positions. In some other professional fields practitioners can get what they want without leaving employment or the expenditure of funds. It follows, therefore, that graduate work in such professional schools will be delayed. The time is coming, however, with the advancement of research and highly developed techniques in practice, when the facilities of the professional school will outweigh the advantages offered by the master specialist.

Specialization presupposes some years of successful experience in professional practice—the kind of experience that reveals one's powers and justifies one's ambition to press forward. It is not merely age, therefore, but primarily a view of life and an appreciation of professional responsibility that come with age, which differentiate the postgraduate student from the novice in training. The two kinds do not mix well. When both are found in the same institution, it is almost inevitable that the interests of one should be sacrificed to the advantage of the other. My prediction is that the Columbia schools of law, medi-

cine, engineering, business, and journalism will eventually become postgraduate schools. The present curricula of these schools cannot be lengthened materially without cutting themselves off from the base of supplies, and it is idle to suppose that a genuine postgraduate school with its mature and self-selected students can be made a mere addendum to anything that now exists. Undergraduate professional schools may be maintained indefinitely, if room and equipment and financial support are assured, but no great university can fail to respond to the obligation of using its resources first of all for the education of those who are to become the leaders in the strategic positions of public life.

The fact that educational progress is conditioned by intellectual ability leads some critics to denounce the work of American schools and colleges. Comparison is made with schools abroad—particularly German schools under the old regime—greatly to the disadvantage of our own institutions. It is said that two years or more are lost somewhere between the primary school and the university, and, withal, the foundation for higher education is less securely laid. Be that as it may, the criticism would be much more worthwhile if its spokesmen knew more of their subject. The American professor who spends a year or two in a German university is greatly impressed with the freedom of teaching and the freedom of learning that prevail in those institutions; he sees students making their way with little help and attaining a conspicuous standing in scholarship, but he does not see what has gone before

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the university experience and he knows little of the forces that underlie the social system.

The German schools under the old regime—the old regime is the one always set up as an example to us—were state controlled and state administered. Their direction, even if supported by municipalities, was according to state regulations; the curriculum was prescribed by state authority; they were inspected and examined by state officials. Their teachers were educated in state institutions, licensed by state examination, appointed by the state, paid by the state, and pensioned in old age by the state. Probably no nation has ever had so competent a body of teachers as Prussia had in her secondary schools before the war. They were civil servants sworn to uphold the government, and right well did they do their duty. They knew exactly what to teach at every step, and their methods permitted of no excuses. Boys spent long hours in school, and every hour was an instruction period. The teacher's business was to teach—not to hear recitations; the boy's task was to learn what the teacher presented. There was no need of textbooks with explanations and illustrations and worked-out examples. In mathematics the textbook was a collection of problems; in history, a syllabus; in foreign languages, the literature itself. Home work was a review of what had been learned in class. The aim was to have the boy learn what his superiors decreed that he should know, and to acquire that knowledge with as few mistakes as possible. And that no outside distraction should interfere, the boy was the ward of the school

from the time he left home until his return. Hence, parents had nothing to say about what was done in school; visitation was permitted only on exhibition days; admission to a public library was forbidden; extracurricular activities were restricted, and even the publishing of a school paper was forbidden. Finally, the boy's education was topped off in the years spent in military training. Such, in brief, was the making of candidates for admission to the German university. Is it possible to conceive of an educational system better calculated to beget dependence upon authority? This system, state-wide in its application and comprehending the education of all boys to the age of nineteen or twenty years, made Germany the fighting machine of 1914.

But dependence upon authority is not synonymous with initiative, self-control, and self-reliance that make for leadership. And Germany did develop leaders of extraordinary capacity. How was it done? The answer is, it was done in the German universities and higher technical schools and by methods diametrically opposite to the methods of the lower schools. The German university required no attendance upon its classes; it kept no records and held no examinations in course; it paid no attention to the habits or conduct of its students except in emergency; a student might keep his name on the rolls for years and never meet an instructor. Meantime the prospective leader in public affairs was getting from his student societies a training in what constitutes a conventional gentleman, how to live his university life, how to meet his equals and

address his superiors, how to deal with his enemies in the duel—a course of training as elaborate and exacting as German thoroughness could make it. From such experience one got self-control and *Muth*, a term, in this sense, translatable into English only by a slang phrase. Finally, a time came when the state examination had to be met—that gateway to every avenue of advance in public life and professional service, a hurdle set up by state authority and designed quite as much to bar the unfit as to select the best. For this test, the candidate had to fit himself with whatever aid he might get from any source. The university offered the means, but the student had little help in using them. The man who after years of academic idleness or dissipation could pull himself together and finally win his goal was a man of power. Initiative developed under the stress of necessity, and with self-direction came self-control and self-reliance. In this way Germany found her leaders. It was a ruthless system, but there was always an over-supply of raw material on which to draw. What to do with the failures was a problem that Germany never solved. Bismarck realized its significance when he said that Germany had most to fear from its educated proletariat.

Contrast this German mode of education with our own. Schools open to children of all classes, supported largely at local expense, directed by lay trustees, and controlled by public opinion; teachers poorly trained and ill paid; textbooks like encyclopedias; libraries, movies, and the radio at everyone's disposal; games and sports a major interest. The only method of teaching that adults of this

generation would recognize as typically American was the recitation, the repetition in class or on examination of materials assigned for home study, a method that encouraged guessing and made class work a contest of wits between teacher and pupil. But, whatever its faults, it did one thing well: it developed initiative in American youth—it made them bold and daring, willing to take chances, ready to try anything once. It fits a new country that has need of pioneers. It is a debatable question whether schooling determines a people's characteristics or is determined by them. It is clear, however, that our type of schooling has been characteristically American. Modification will come in time, but revolutionary change is inconceivable so long as our education is of the people, for the people, and by the people.

Leadership in the future will not come by chance. Scientific precision will replace guesswork. Exact knowledge must prevail in high places. Something may be done to improve scholarship in our secondary schools on the part of those who can use it, but the American secondary school has other duties besides the making of scholars. Granting the necessity of scholarship, the heaviest load must be carried by our colleges and university schools. They have no need to encourage initiative in thought or action in their students; young Americans exhibit independence enough when left to themselves. But what our students do need is to learn how to study, how to do straightforward, logical thinking, how to round out an intellectual task in scholarly fashion; in a word, they need

discipline in learning. The only way to attain this result is by straightforward instruction under a master. Desultory teaching with the assignment of tasks to be done at home will not do it. Threats and browbeating will not do it. University teachers might well learn a lesson from business, where the responsible heads train their subordinates in all kindness, but tolerate no mistakes and permit no guesswork.

The oversight of students in the American university is fully justified, its practice of requiring class attendance, quizzes, and examinations, its emphasis upon personal contact between teacher and students—all these peculiarities of our higher education are fully justified, if good teaching holds the student to his job. No apology is necessary for our failure to use French or German methods in our higher schools, unless we are willing to adopt the European strait jacket in our lower schools.

This sketch of the principles underlying professional education is a summary of the experience gained in thirty years of association with my colleagues in Columbia University. While no one school may have faced all the problems here presented, every question has been put to some school. A digest of the annual reports of the several Deans would read like a commentary on the subject. The reports of President Butler are most illuminating; his clear-cut exposition of the philosophic basis of all education has been a standing challenge to progressive endeavor in every department. The development of Teachers College has been a practical illustration of these principles. We have

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faced new conditions in public education—unparalleled growth in school attendance, extraordinary increase in school expenditures, new ideals, new curricula, and new methods of instruction—and have set ourselves the task of training leaders for this new service; we have gradually eliminated young students in favor of those who have had the best that the college and normal school can give preparatory to actual experience in teaching; in dealing with specialists we have abandoned all set curricula in the effort to meet the needs of each individual; we have avoided a departmental organization; and we have emphasized research and investigation far beyond the usual practice in professional schools. What is known now in every field is so much in excess of a student's ability to acquire in the time at his disposal that our chief problem is to choose what is most useful. This challenge to the professional acumen of our staff is the legacy I leave to my successor and his colleagues in full confidence that they will carry on in the spirit that has characterized the work of the past thirty years.

Respectfully submitted,
JAMES E. RUSSELL
Dean

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